

Specific Heat Exponent of Random-Field Ising Magnets

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Abstract Zero-temperature simulations of the $d = 3$ random-field Ising model (RFIM) with a bimodal distribution suggest that the specific heat's critical behaviour is consistent with an exponent $\alpha \approx 0$. This is compatible with experimental measurements on random-field and diluted-antiferromagnetic systems and, together with previous simulations on the Gaussian RFIM, settles a clear picture for the currently controversial issue of the value of the critical exponent α in the random-field problem.

Keywords Random-Field Ising Model, Critical Exponents, Optimization Methods

1. Introduction

The RFIM has been extensively studied due to its interest as a simple frustrated system, as well as its close connection to experiments [1]. Its beauty is that the mixture of random fields and the standard Ising model creates rich physics and leaves many still unanswered problems. The Hamiltonian describing the model is

$$H^{(RFIM)} = -J \sum_{\langle i, j \rangle} \sigma_i \sigma_j - \sum_i h_i \sigma_i, \quad (1)$$

where $\sigma_i = \pm 1$ are Ising spins, $J > 0$ is the nearest-neighbour's ferromagnetic interaction, and h_i are independent quenched random fields obtained from a relevant distribution $P(h_i)$. Although the existence of an ordered ferromagnetic phase for the $d > 2$ RFIM is well established, many years now [2], a clear resolution of its critical behaviour is still lacking, in many terms. Historically, one of the main puzzles has been the mean-field prediction of a tricritical point in the phase diagram of the bimodal RFIM [3]. Currently, although we know that the phase transition of the RFIM is of second-order with a very small value of the exponent β , irrespective of $P(h_i)$ [3-7], a large controversy on the scaling behaviour of the specific heat continues to cast doubts [4, 8-13].

In particular, the specific heat of the RFIM can be experimentally measured [8] and is, for sure, of great theoretical importance. Yet, it is well known that it is one of the most intricate thermodynamic quantities to deal with in numerical simulations, even when it comes to pure systems.

For the RFIM, Monte Carlo methods at positive temperatures ($T > 0$) have been used to estimate the value of its critical exponent α , but were restricted to rather small system sizes and have also revealed many serious problems, i.e., severe violations of self-averaging [9, 10, 13]. On the other hand a better picture emerged throughout the years from zero-temperature ($T = 0$) computations, suggesting estimates of $\alpha \approx 0$, at least for the Gaussian model [4, 14]. However, even by using the same numerical techniques, but different scaling approaches, some inconsistencies have been recorded in the literature. The most prominent was that of Ref. [4], where a strongly negative value of the critical exponent α was estimated. On the other hand, experiments on random field and diluted antiferromagnetic systems suggest a clear logarithmic divergence of the specific heat, corresponding to an exponent $\alpha = 0$ [8], as also expected from scaling.

In this work we shed some light on this issue by providing numerical results at zero temperature for the RFIM with a bimodal distribution of the form

$$P(h_i) = (1/2) [\delta(h_i - h) + \delta(h_i + h)], \quad (2)$$

where h defines the disorder (field) strength. Our effort benefits from (i) the existence of robust computational methods of graph theory at $T = 0$ and (ii) the work of Hartmann and Nowak [15] that have suggested accurate estimates of the critical field $h_c = 2.20(2)$ and the correlation length's exponent $\nu = 1.67(11)$ of the bimodal RFIM using these ground-state calculations and linear sizes up to $L = 80$. Although Ref. [15] is the most thorough one in the literature of the bimodal RFIM, we should note here that also other previous works in the field have provided estimates for the set (h_c, ν) that compare well to these values [16, 17].

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Published online at <http://journal.sapub.org/ajcmp>

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2. Simulation at Zero Temperature

As it is well known, the random field is a relevant perturbation at the pure fixed point, and the random-field fixed point is at zero temperature[2]. We can therefore determine the critical behaviour, staying at $T=0$ and crossing the phase boundary at $h = h_c$. This is a convenient approach because we can determine the ground states exactly using efficient optimization algorithms[18-21] through an existing mapping of the ground state to the maximum-flow optimization problem[22-24]. A clear advantage of this approach is the ability to simulate large system sizes and disorder ensembles avoiding at the same time statistical errors and equilibration problems, which are the two major drawbacks encountered in positive – temperature simulations of systems with rough free-energy landscapes [25]. The application of optimization algorithms to the RFIM is nowadays well established[25]. Here, we have implemented the Push-Relabel algorithm of Goldberg and Tarjan[26], including also an interesting modification proposed by Middleton and Fisher[4].

The algorithm starts by assigning an excess x_i to each lattice site i , with $x_i = h_i$. Residual capacity variables r_{ij} between neighbouring sites are initially set to J . A height variable u_i is then assigned to each node via a global update step. In this global update, the value of u_i at each site in the set $T = \{j | x_j < 0\}$ of negative excess sites is set to zero. Sites with $x_i \geq 0$ have u_i set to the length of the shortest path, via edges with positive capacity from i to T . The ground state is found by successively rearranging the excesses x_i , via *push* operations, and updating the heights, via *relabel* operations. When no more pushes or relabels are possible, a final global update determines the ground state, so that sites which are path connected by bonds with $r_{ij} > 0$ to T have $\sigma_i = -1$, while those which are disconnected from T have $\sigma_i = +1$.

A push operation moves excess from a site i to a lower height neighbour j , if possible, that is, whenever $x_i > 0$, $r_{ij} > 0$, and $u_j = u_i - 1$. In a push, the working variables are modified according to $x_i \rightarrow x_i - \delta$; $x_j \rightarrow x_j + \delta$; $r_{ij} \rightarrow r_{ij} - \delta$; $r_{ji} \rightarrow r_{ji} + \delta$, where $\delta = \min(x_i, r_{ij})$. Push operations tend to move the positive excess towards sites in T . When $x_i > 0$ and no push is possible, the site is relabelled, with u_i increased to $1 + \min_{\{j | r_{ij} > 0\}} u_j$. In addition, if a set of highest sites U becomes isolated, with $u_i > u_j + 1$, for all $i \in U$ and all $j \notin U$, the height u_i for all $i \in U$ is increased to its maximum value, N , as these sites will always be isolated from the negative excess nodes. Periodic global updates are often crucial to the practical speed of the algorithm[4].

Following the suggestions of Middleton and Fisher[4], we have also applied global updates here every N relabels, a practise found to be computationally optimum. Using this scheme, we performed simulations of the bimodal RFIM for systems containing up to $N = 128^3$ spins, for 5 candidate h_c -values of the field strength in the range [2.18 - 2.22] with a step 0.01, following the proposed critical value $h_c = 2.20(2)$ of Ref.[15]. For each pair (L, h_c) an extensive disorder averaging has been undertaken by sampling over 5×10^4 random-field realizations.

3. Results and Discussion

In general, one expects that the finite – temperature definition of the specific heat C can be extended to zero temperature, with the second derivative of $\langle E \rangle$ with respect to temperature being replaced by the second derivative of the ground-state energy density E_{gs} with respect to the random field h [4,12]. The first derivative $\partial E_{gs} / \partial J$ is just

$$E_J = -(1/N) \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} \sigma_i \sigma_j. \quad (3)$$

The general finite – size scaling form assumed is that the singular part of the specific heat C_s behaves as

$$C_s = L^{\alpha/\nu} \tilde{C}\{(h - h_c)L^{1/\nu}\}. \quad (4)$$

Thus, one may estimate α by studying the behaviour of $[E_J]_{av}$ at $h = h_c$ [4]. The computation from the behaviour of $[E_J]_{av}$ is based on integrating Eq. (4) up to h_c , which gives a dependence of the form

$$[E_J]_{av}(h = h_c) = c_1 + c_2 L^{-(\alpha-1)/\nu}, \quad (5)$$

with c_i constants. Alternatively, following the prescription of Ref.[12], one may calculate the second derivative by finite differences of $E_J(h)$ for values of h near h_c and determine α by fitting to the maximum of the peaks in C_s , which occur at $h_L - h_c \approx L^{-1/\nu}$. However, this latter approach may be more strongly affected by strong finite – size corrections, since the peaks in C_s found by numerical differentiation are somewhat above h_s , and furthermore is computationally more demanding since one must have the values of $[E_J]_{av}$ in a wide range of h values. In the present case, where the critical value h_c is known with good accuracy[15], the first approach seems to be more suitable to follow.

Thus, using our numerical data we have constructed the disorder – averaged curves $[E_J]_{av}(h)$ shown in Fig. 1 for all 5 values of the candidate critical field h_c , as also indicated in the figure. The error bars shown reflect the sample – to – sample fluctuations in the ensemble of the

disorder realizations. The solid lines are power – law fittings of the form $[E_J]_{av}(h = h_c) = c_1 + c_2 L^{-x}$, where $x = (\alpha - 1)/\nu$. The estimates for the exponent x are also shown in Figure 1, each one next to the corresponding curve. Using now the estimate $\nu = 1.67(11)$ of Ref.[15] and the relation $x = (\alpha - 1)/\nu$ we calculate the critical exponent α of the specific heat and its error bars and we plot its dependence on h_c in Fig. 2. Note that the rather large error bars come mainly from the error of the critical exponent ν used $\delta\nu = 0.11$. The dotted line in this figure is a guide for the eye and marks the case $\alpha = 0$. From Fig. 2 it is clear that the critical exponent α is very close to zero (especially for the value $h_c = 2.20$ that has been proposed as the exact critical disorder strength of the bimodal RFIM we get $\alpha = -0.03(8)$). All this set of α -values is in accordance with the experimental prediction of a diverging specific heat[8] and also with the most extensive numerical works on the Gaussian RFIM that have predicted $\alpha = -0.01(6)$ [4] and $0.1(1)$ [14] using similar techniques.

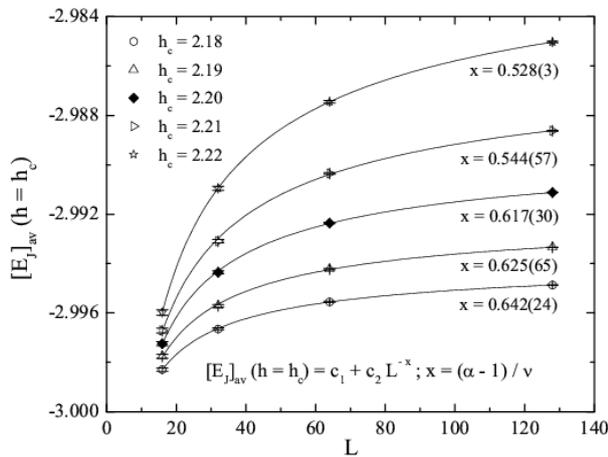


Figure 1. Finite – size scaling behaviour of the bond part of the energy density at the 5 candidate values of the critical random – field strength h

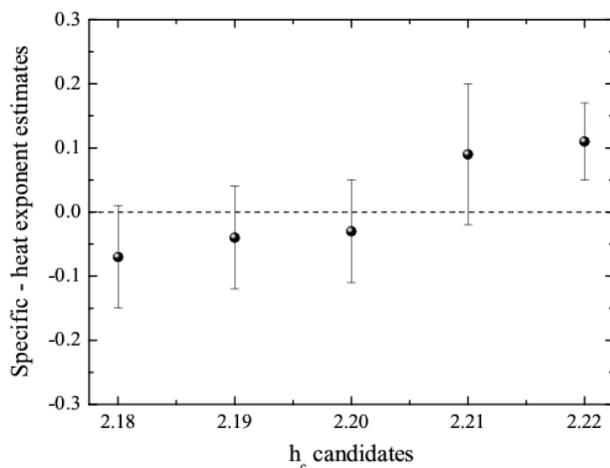


Figure 2. Specific – heat exponent estimates as a function of the 5 candidate values for the critical field

4. Conclusions

In summary, we have presented an independent estimation of the critical exponent α of the bimodal RFIM. The scaling behaviour of the bond part of the energy density at the critical field indicated that $\alpha \approx 0$, thus pointing at a logarithmic divergence of the specific heat, in agreement with experimental data[8], and also in agreement with the most important studies of the corresponding Gaussian model[4,14]. Our effort became feasible through the implementation of a modified version of the Push – Relabel algorithm[4] that enabled us to simulate very large system sizes, up to $N = 128^3$ spins, and disorder ensembles of the order of 5×10^4 , for several values of the field strength. Clearly, such a computational task goes beyond the limits of any kind of positive – temperature Monte Carlo scheme.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

P.E.T. is grateful for financial support by the Austrian Science Foundation within the SFB ViCoM (Grant F41). I.G. acknowledges financial support by *Marie Curie ITN-COMPLOIDS* (Grant Agreement No. 234810). N.G.F. has been partly supported by MICINN, Spain, through Research Contract No. FIS2009-12648-C03.

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